# **Acute Traumatic Injuries in Rural Populations**

In the United States, injuries are the leading cause of death among individuals aged 1 to 45 years and the fourth leading cause of death overall. Rural populations exhibit disproportionately high injury mortality rates. Deaths resulting from motor vehicle crashes, traumatic occupational injuries, drowning, residential fires, and suicide all increase with increasing rurality.

We describe differences in rates and patterns of injury among rural and urban populations and discuss factors that contribute to these differences. (*Am J Public Health*. 2004;94:1689–1693)

Corinne Peek-Asa, PhD, MPH, Craig Zwerling, PhD, MD, MPH, and Lorann Stallones, PhD, MPH

#### TRAUMATIC INJURIES ARE A

major public health problem in the United States. Injuries are the leading cause of death among those aged 1 to 45 years and the fourth leading cause among individuals of all ages. They account for 29% of all years of potential life lost among individuals aged younger than 65 years, representing the largest percentage associated with any cause of death. Injuries create an annual economic burden of more than \$260 billion in the United States and are a leading contributor to disability and loss of quality of life.1

Rural populations have been shown to have disproportionately high injury mortality rates, and decreasing population density is the strongest predictor of county-specific trauma death rates in the United States.<sup>2,3</sup> Rural fatality rates are more than twice as high as urban rates in the case of a wide variety of injuries, including motor vehicle crashes, traumatic occupational injuries, drowning, unintentional firearm injuries, residential fires, electrocutions, and suicides.<sup>2,4,5</sup>

Rural and urban environments are very different, and many factors may be related to disparities in injury rates. In the sections to follow, we describe differences in rates and patterns of injuries among rural and urban populations and discuss some of the contributing factors.

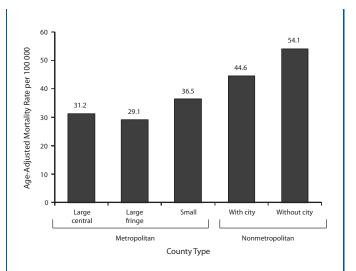
## RURAL DISPARITIES IN INJURY RATES

The National Center for Health Statistics published county-level injury rates in the 2001 *Urban* and *Rural Health Chartbook*, in which counties were classified according to their urbanization level.<sup>2</sup> The unintentional injury mortality rate for the most rural counties was 54.1 per 100 000 population, a rate almost 2 times higher than that observed in large metropolitan counties. Among rural areas with a small city (population below 10 000), the rate was nearly 1.5 times higher (Figure 1).

The *Urban and Rural Health Chartbook* revealed similar trends in the case of suicide deaths (Figure 2). Relative to large fringe metropolitan counties, suicide death rates were 31% and 43% higher, respectively, in nonmetropolitan counties adjacent and not adjacent to small cities. Disparities were greatest among male residents of the western

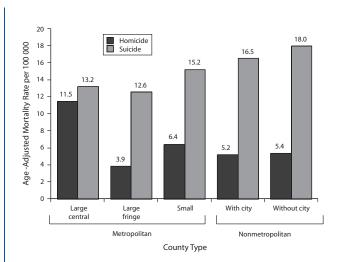
United States, whose suicide rate was 80% higher in rural areas than in metropolitan areas.<sup>2</sup> Homicide rates are highest in large metropolitan counties and are similar in smaller metropolitan and rural counties (Figure 2).

Much less has been documented about disparities in nonfatal injuries according to rurality. For example, national injury incidence rates from the National Health Interview Survey have not been published by rurality (M. Warner, National Center for Health Statistics, written communication, November 2003). Rural trends in violent victimization have been reported by the Bureau of Justice Statistics via the National Crime Victimization Survey. Data derived from this survey indicate that rural residents are less likely than urban or suburban residents to be vic-



Source. Data are adapted from Urban and Rural Health Chartbook.2

FIGURE 1—Unintentional traumatic injury death rates, by urbanization level: United States, 1996–1998.



Source. Data are adapted from Urban and Rural Health Chartbook.<sup>2</sup>

FIGURE 2—Homicide and suicide death rates, by urbanization level: United States, 1996–1998.

tims of violent crimes, <sup>6</sup> a finding consistent with results indicating lower homicide rates among rural populations.

However, although rates of both violent and property crime victimization decreased from 1993 to 1998, this decrease occurred at a greater rate in urban and suburban than in rural areas.6 This trend could indicate that prevention programs designed for urban populations have not been applied or have not been effective in rural areas. In 1998, urban and suburban residents were more likely than rural residents to be victims of simple and aggravated assaults, although rape and sexual assault rates were similar in all areas.

Individual studies examining different types and mechanisms of nonfatal injury provide some information regarding rural disparities. An analysis of data from the Colorado Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System showed that the odds of a self-reported nonfatal injury were 30% higher among rural than among urban

residents.<sup>7</sup> In the case of rural residents living in remote areas, the odds increased to 64%. Traumatic brain injury rates were shown to be higher in rural than in urban populations.<sup>8</sup>

However, other studies that examined types of injuries, including overall fractures and hip fractures, showed rates to be lower in rural than in urban populations.9,10 Studies have indicated that overall rates of serious firearm injuries are consistently higher in urban areas 11,12 but that unintentional firearm injury rates are higher among rural populations, perhaps driven by higher proportions of gun ownership. 12 At least one study has shown that safe storage of firearms in the home does not differ according to urban/rural status.13

In addition to limited knowledge about nonfatal injury incidence rates according to rurality, there is also limited information about variation within rural areas. For example, farmers are less likely to wear seat belts and use alcohol but more likely to

own a gun than rural townspeople, and these risk factors have been strongly tied to injury incidence rates. <sup>14</sup>

# RURAL DISPARITIES IN SELECTED TYPES OF INJURY

#### **Motor Vehicle Injuries**

Much of the increase in rural injury death rates is related to motor vehicle crashes. According to the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, rural fatal crashes account for 61% of all traffic fatalities but only 39% of vehicle miles traveled, and the rural-urban difference is increasing over time. 15 Crash-related mortality is inversely associated with population density and per capita income.16 Analyses of motor vehicle crashes in several states have shown that fatality rates in the most rural counties are almost double those observed in urban counties. 17,18

Many factors may contribute to the increased motor vehicle crash fatality rates observed in rural areas. For example, environmental factors may contribute to increased rates of crash occurrence both among rural residents and among urban residents driving on rural roads. Unlike interstate roads, rural highways are typically composed of 2 narrow lanes and do not have crash reduction features such as divided traffic streams, controlled vehicle entrances and exits, graded curves, skid-reducing surfaces, large lane and median widths, and lighted traffic signs. 19,20 In comparison with urban primary roads, rural roads have fewer traffic control devices, and speeds are often higher because of the presence of uninterrupted segments of roadway.

Certain types of crashes, such as those involving motor vehicle collisions with farm machinery, are unique to rural environments. These crashes most frequently involve slow-moving tractors and are exacerbated by the high speeds at which vehicles often travel on rural roadways. In addition, other types of crashes, such as those involving all-terrain vehicles and snowmobiles, are more common in rural areas.

Environmental factors may also contribute to increased crash severity. Head-on collisions, which most frequently occur when traffic streams are not separated and which are the most likely of all crash types to cause fatality and severe injury, account for 17% of fatal rural crashes and 9% of fatal urban crashes. <sup>16</sup>

Behavioral factors also differ according to population density. Rural residents are less likely than urban residents to wear seat belts or to use child safety seats, <sup>14,22,23</sup> and they are more likely to consume alcohol. <sup>24</sup> In addition, enforcement of traffic safety laws, such as laws against drunk driving and speeding, may be limited in some rural areas because of the reduced density of traffic enforcement officials.

# Traumatic Occupational and Agricultural Injuries

Traumatic occupational fatality rates are higher among rural than urban populations. For example, in comparison with the national average, injury mortality rates in the construction industry are 40% higher in predominantly rural states.<sup>25</sup> Many of the most dangerous occupations are found in rural areas, most notably mining and agriculture.<sup>26–29</sup> In 2002, the mining industry had the highest occupational fatality

rate, 29.1 per 100 000 workers, followed by agriculture, at 21.0.<sup>30</sup> Mining workers suffered approximately 10 000 disabling injuries, and agricultural workers experienced approximately 150 000 such injuries.<sup>30</sup> Each year, approximately 10% of farmers are injured while working.<sup>31</sup>

Major initiatives established by the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health have identified agricultural risks and potential approaches to prevention.32,33 Research on agricultural injuries indicates that major injury risks are linked to working with animals and machinery, especially tractors.<sup>29,34-37</sup> Injuries are often multiple and severe, resulting in substantial disability, and compensation is less available for farm injuries than for non-farm-related occupational injuries. 29,35,38-40

In addition to agricultural work, farms involve hazards for the entire family, because work areas and work tasks are so closely tied to living and play areas. Farm injury risks are similar among men and women when number of hours of exposure to farm tasks is controlled,<sup>41</sup> and children and elderly farm residents are at especially high risk for farm-related injuries. 33,42-45 Occupational hazards on farms, such as animals and machinery, pose risks to children whether they are working or playing. 43,44 In 2003, the National Children's Center for Agricultural Health and Safety led an effort to establish consensus development initiatives and generate work guidelines (work guidelines available at: http://www.nagcat.org) and play guidelines (play guidelines available at: http://research. marshfieldclinic.org/children/ safeplay.pdf) to protect children from agricultural trauma.

#### **Residential Fire Injuries**

Fires and burns are the seventh leading cause of overall injury deaths and the fourth leading cause of unintentional injury deaths in the United States. <sup>46</sup> In 1998, an estimated 381 500 residential structure fires resulted in 3250 nonfirefighter deaths, 17 175 injuries, and approximately \$4.4 billion in property loss. <sup>47</sup> Residential fires accounted for 74% of all structure fires, 81% of all fire-related deaths, and 74% of injuries resulting from fires. <sup>47</sup>

Fire death rates per capita are 36% higher in rural than in urban areas,48 and there are many causes of this increased risk among rural inhabitants. Residential fires may be more common in rural homes because of older home construction and use of more risky heating sources. Heating is the leading cause (36%) of rural home fires, 48 followed by cooking (13%). In urban areas, the situation is reversed, with cooking the leading cause of home fires (25%) and heating the second leading cause (16%).

Residents of rural areas may be less likely to escape from a fire once it has started because of poor home fire protection. Smoke alarms reduce the risk of dying in a fire by half <sup>49,50</sup> and reduce the risk of having a reportable fire by three fourths.<sup>50</sup> However, 73% of rural home fires occur in homes without operational smoke detectors.<sup>48</sup> In the United States, the percentage of urban homes with smoke detectors is 92.9%, while the corresponding percentage of rural homes is 85.8%.51 Furthermore, the percentage of homes that experience a fire and have a working smoke alarm is 41.8% in urban areas but only 20.8% in rural areas.<sup>52</sup> The isolation of rural homes may also cause delayed detection and longer response times on the part of fire and emergency service personnel.<sup>48</sup>

# **Emergency Medical Services** and Trauma Care

Delay in receiving trauma care is one of the major factors contributing to risk of traumatic injury death in rural environments.<sup>53</sup> On average, trauma deaths occurring in rural environments involve less severe injuries than those occurring in urban environments, which indicates potentially preventable deaths.<sup>54</sup> Rural trauma victims are also more likely to be pronounced dead at the injury scene, which can be attributed to longer discovery and transport times. 53,54 Access to care and presence of personnel with advanced life support training who provide prehospital care are associated with lower death rates,<sup>55</sup> while higher trauma death rates in rural areas have been correlated with lower per capita numbers of board-certified surgeons.<sup>56</sup>

Challenges to trauma systems in rural areas include the longer distances required for emergency medical service personnel to reach injured individuals, the longer distances required to reach advanced trauma care facilities, the predominance of volunteer emergency medical service providers (who may be less likely to have undergone advanced training or to have equipment for advanced field life support), and, often, a lack of protocols for triage and transfer decisions. 53,54 The costs of expanding trauma services in rural areas are prohibitive because of sparse populations, and lack of local services results in rural trauma personnel facing different challenges than urban personnel.

For example, most studies of trauma care support the practice

of stabilizing severe injuries at a local hospital followed by transfer to a trauma hospital. <sup>57–61</sup> However, these studies have largely been conducted in urban areas. Delays in receiving definitive care owing to prolonged pretransfer stays in small community hospitals have been described, <sup>57,62</sup> and the findings of one trauma care study conducted in a rural area support direct transport of patients to the nearest trauma hospital. <sup>63</sup>

The development and adoption of organized trauma systems have had measurable effects in terms of reducing deaths and improving outcomes among trauma patients. 64-68 Trauma systems integrate decisions about field care, triage, and transport to allow provision of the necessary level of care with minimal delay. Trauma systems were developed and have been tested in mostly urban settings; much less is known about the need for and delivery of trauma care in rural settings.69 Regional trauma systems that integrate wider geographic areas have been found to be most effective, but many systems include limited areas or only major trauma centers. 70,71 This is an especially important factor in regard to rural areas, most of which do not have trauma hospitals.

#### **DISCUSSION**

Many factors are possible contributors to the increased mortality and injury incidence rates observed among rural populations. Some injury mechanisms may occur more frequently in rural than urban populations; for example, motor vehicle crashes may occur more frequently on rural roadways because of their design. Other

## **RURAL HEALTH AND HEALTH CARE DISPARITIES**

injury mechanisms may be present only in rural environments, an example being injury risks posed by agricultural work.

In addition to being more frequent, rural injuries may also be more severe. For example, one study of motor vehicle crashes showed that rural crash victims were twice as likely to die as their nonrural counterparts. 18 Behavioral data indicate that rural residents are less likely to engage in secondary prevention strategies that reduce injury severity, such as wearing seat belts or bicycle helmets or using child safety seats. 14,23,72 Moreover, prevention programs that provide safety equipment and programs that promote the use of such equipment (e.g., safety seat installation checks) may be less available in rural areas.

Inadequate access to emergency medical services may increase the likelihood of a fatal outcome among individuals injured in rural areas. As discussed earlier, problems involving access to such services probably represent one of the most important factors contributing to increased injury death rates among rural populations. Finally, lack of rehabilitation services in rural areas may hinder full recovery once an injury has occurred.<sup>73</sup> For example, it has been shown that patients in a rural setting with traumatic brain injuries are more likely to be functionally dependent and to report impaired health status than their urban counterparts.<sup>74</sup> Rural residents have limited access to psychological services as well, which might also hinder recovery from a traumatic event.

Several national prevention initiatives have been designed for urban populations. However, differences in rural and urban envi-

ronments suggest that prevention strategies developed for urban populations may not translate well to rural populations. For example, it is more challenging to establish designated driver programs intended to reduce drunk driving collisions in rural environments given the distances between homes. In addition, pool fencing legislation aimed at prevention of drowning is less applicable to rural areas where open bodies of water are more frequent sites for drowning. Safe walk-to-school programs are less applicable to rural households and communities because most rural children live far away from their schools and ride the bus.

Challenges for prevention in rural environments include sparse populations, greater geographic areas, different injury risks, isolation, increased behavioral risk factors, and lack of access to care. These factors probably contribute to the lack of rural injury prevention research. However, despite the challenges involved there is a clear need to identify differences in patterns of injuries and injury risks in rural and urban areas and to better translate and evaluate prevention and intervention programs in rural communities.

#### **About the Authors**

The authors are with the Injury Prevention Research Center, University of Iowa College of Public Health, Iowa City.

Requests for reprints should be sent to Corinne Peek-Asa, PhD, MPH, 100 Oakdale Blvd #114 IREH; Iowa City, IA 52242 (e-mail: corinne-peek-asa@uiowa.edu).

This article was accepted April 30, 2004.

#### **Contributors**

All of the authors contributed to the conceptualization of the article. C. Peek-Asa wrote the article, and C. Zwerling and L. Stallones contributed to the editing of the article.

### **Acknowledgments**

This work was supported by the Iowa Injury Prevention Research Center (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC]/National Center for Injury Prevention and Control [NCIPC] grant CCR 703640) and the Colorado Injury Prevention Research Center (CDC/NCIPC grant CCR 811509).

#### References

- 1. Institute of Medicine. *Reducing the Burden of Injuries: Advancing Prevention and Treatment.* Washington, DC: National Academy Press; 1999.
- 2. Eberhardt MS, Ingram DD, Makuc DM, et al. *Urban and Rural Health Chartbook: Health, United States, 2001*. Hyattsville, Md: National Center for Health Statistics; 2001.
- 3. Rutledge R, Fakhry SM, Baker CC, et al. A population-based study of the association of medical manpower with county trauma death rates in the United States. *Ann Surg.* 1994;219:547–567.
- 4. Baker SP, Whitfield RA, O'Neill B. County mapping of injury mortality. *J Trauma*. 1988;28:741–745.
- 5. Baker SP, O'Neill B, Ginsburg MJ, Li G. *The Injury Fact Book.* 2nd ed. New York, NY: Oxford University Press Inc; 1992
- Duhart DT. Urban, Suburban, and Rural Victimization, 1993–1998. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics; 2000
- 7. Leff M, Stallones L, Keefe TJ, Rosenblatt R, Reeds M. Comparison of urban and rural nonfatal injury: the results of a statewide survey. *Inj Prev.* 2003:9:332–337.
- 8. Gabella B, Hoffman RE, Marine WW, Stallones L. Urban and rural traumatic brain injuries in Colorado. *Ann Epidemiol.* 1997;7:207–212.
- 9. Chevalley T, Herrmann FR, Delmi M, et al. Evaluation of the age-adjusted incidence of hip fractures between urban and rural areas: the difference is not related to the prevalence of institutions for the elderly. *Osteoporos Int.* 2002;13: 113–118
- Melton LJ III, Crowsonn CS, O'Fallon WM. Fracture incidence in Olmsted County, Minnesota: comparison of urban with rural rates and changes in urban rates over time. Osteoporos Int. 1999:9:29–37.
- 11. Nance ML, Denysenko L, Durbin DR, Branas CC, Stafford PW, Schwab CW. The rural-urban continuum: variability in statewide serious firearm injuries in children and adolescents. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med.* 2002;156: 781–785.
- 12. Sing RF, Branas CC, MacKenzie EJ,

- Schwab CW. Geographic variation in serious nonfatal firearm injuries in Pennsylvania. *J Trauma*. 1997;43:825–830.
- 13. Stennies G, Ikeda R, Leadbetter S, Houston B, Sacks J. Firearm storage practices and children in the home: United States, 1994. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med.* 1999;153:586–590.
- 14. Zwerling C, Merchant JA, Nordstrom DL, et al. Risk factors for injury in rural Iowa: round one of the Keokuk County Rural Health Study. *Am J Prev Med.* 2001;20:230–233.
- 15. Traffic Safety Facts 2001: Rural/ Urban Comparison. Washington, DC: National Highway Traffic Safety Administration; 2001.
- 16. Baker SP, Whitfield RA, O'Neill B. Geographic variations in mortality from motor vehicle crashes. *N Engl J Med.* 1987;316:1384–1387.
- 17. Muelleman RS, Mueller K. Fatal motor vehicle crashes: variations of crash characteristics within rural regions of different population densities. *J Trauma*. 1996;38:315–320.
- 18. Maio RF, Green PE, Becker MP, Burney RE, Compton C. Rural motor vehicle crash mortality: the role of crash severity and medical resources. *Accid Anal Prev.* 1992;24:631–642.
- 19. Graham JD. Injuries from traffic crashes: meeting the challenge. *Annu Rev Public Health*. 1993;13:515–543.
- 20. Karlaftis MG, Golias I. Effects of road geometry and traffic volumes on rural roadway accident rates. *Accid Anal Prev.* 2002;34:357–365.
- 21. Costello TM, Schulman MD, Luginbuhl RC. Understanding the public health impacts of farm vehicle public road crashes in North Carolina. *J Agricultural Safety Health*. 2003;9:19–32.
- 22. Baker DR, Clarke SR, Brandt EN. An analysis of factors associated with seat belt use: prevention opportunities for the medical community. *J Okla State Med Assoc.* 2000;93:496–500.
- 23. Lundell J. Motor vehicle occupant safety in a rural state. *Tex J Rural Health*. 2003;21(4):2–10.
- 24. Blatt J, Furman SM. Residence location of drivers involved in fatal crashes. *Accid Anal Prev.* 1998;30: 705–711.
- 25. Zwerling C, Miller ER, Lynch CF, Torner J. Injuries among construction workers in rural Iowa: emergency department surveillance. *J Occup Environ Med.* 1996;38:698–704.
- 26. Merchant JA, Kross B, Donham KJ, Pratt DS. *Agriculture at Risk: A Report to the Nation*. Kansas City, Mo: National Coalition for Agricultural Safety and

## RURAL HEALTH AND HEALTH CARE DISPARITIES

- Health, National Rural Health Association: 1989
- 27. Injury Control in the 1990s: A National Plan for Action. Atlanta. Ga: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention;
- 28. Merchant JA, Reynolds S, Zwerling C. Work in agriculture. In: McDonald JC, ed. Epidemiology of Work Related Diseases. London, England: BMJ Publishing Group; 1995:267-292.
- 29. Zwerling C. Injuries at work. In: McDonald JC, ed. Epidemiology of Work Related Diseases. 2nd ed. London: BMJ Books; 2000:267-282.
- 30. Injury Facts, 2002. Itasca, Ill: National Safety Council; 2003.
- 31. McCurdy SA, Carroll DJ. Agricultural injury. Am J Ind Med. 2000;38:
- 32. Petrea RE, ed. Using History and Accomplishments to Plan for the Future: A Summary of 15 Years in Agricultural Safety and Health and Action Steps for Future Directions. Urbana, Ill: Agricultural Safety and Health Network; 2003.
- 33. Lee B, Gallagher S, Marlenga B, Hard D. Childhood Agricultural Injury Prevention: Progress Report and Updated National Action Plan From the 2001 Summit. Marshfield, Wis: Marshfield Clinic: 2002.
- 34. Layde PM, Nordstrom DL, Stueland D, Brand L, Olson KA. Machinerelated occupational injuries in farm residents. Ann Epidemiol. 1995;5: 419-426.
- 35. Waller JA. Injuries to farmers and farm families in a dairy state. J Occup Med. 1992:34:414-421.
- 36. Sprince NL, Zwerling C, Lynch CF, et al. Risk factors for agricultural injury: a case-control analysis of Iowa farmers in the Agricultural Health Study. J Agricultural Safety Health. 2003;9:5-18.
- 37. Zwerling C, Burmeister LF, Jensen CM. Injury mortality among Iowa farmers, 1980-1988: comparison of PMR and SMR approaches. Am J Epidemiol. 1995;141:878-882.
- 38. Fuortes LJ, Merchant JA, Van Lier SF. 1983 occupational injury hospital admissions in Iowa: a comparison of the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors. Am J Ind Med. 1990;18:211-222.
- 39. Gerberich SG, Gibson RW, Gunderson PD. The Olmstead Agricultural Trauma Study (OATS): A Population-Based Effort. Minneapolis, Minn: University of Minnesota; 1991.
- 40. Myers JR. Injuries Among Farm Workers in the United States, 1994. Cincinnati, Ohio: National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health; 1998. NIOSH publication 98-153.

- 41. Stallones L, Beseler C. Farm work practices and farm injuries in Colorado. Inj Prev. 2003;9:241-244.
- 42. Stallones L. Fatal unintentional injuries among Kentucky's farm children: 1979 to 1985. J Rural Health. 1989;5: 246-256
- 43. Rivara FP. Fatal and nonfatal farm injuries to children and adolescents in the United States: 1990-1993. Inj Prev. 1997;3:190-194.
- 44. Reed DB, Claunch DT. Nonfatal farm injury incidence and disability to children: a systematic review. Am J Prev Med. 2000;18(suppl 4):70-79.
- 45. Xiang H, Stallones L, Chiu Y. Nonfatal agricultural injuries among Colorado older male farmers. J Aging Health. 1999;11:65-78
- 46. Fingerhut LA, Warner M. Injury Chartbook: Health, United States, 1996-97. Hyattsville, Md: National Center for Health Statistics; 1997.
- 47. Karter MJ Jr. 1997 fire loss in the United States, Natl Fire Protection Association J. 1999;93:88-95.
- 48. The Rural Fire Problem in the United States. Washington, DC: Federal Emergency Management Agency, United States Fire Administration; 1997.
- 49. Runyan CW, Bangdiwala SI, Linzer MA, Sacks JJ, Butts J. Risk factors for fatal residential fires.  $N \, Engl \, J \, Med.$ 1992:327:859-863
- 50. Hall JR Jr. The US experience with smoke detectors: who has them? How well do they work? When don't they work? Natl Fire Protection Assoc J. 1994;88:36-46.
- 51. Harvey PA, Sacks JJ, Ryan GW, Bender PF. Residential smoke alarms and fire escape plans. Public Health Rep. 1998;113:459-464.
- 52. McGwin G, Chapman V, Rouseculp M, Robison J, Fine P. The epidemiology of fire-related deaths in Alabama, 1992-1997. J Burn Care Rehabil. 2000;21:75-83.
- 53. Grossman DC, Kim A, Macdonald SC, Klein P, Copass MD, Maier RV. Urban-rural differences in prehospital care of major trauma. J Trauma. 1997; 42:723-729.
- 54. Rogers FB, Shackford SR, Hoyt DB, et al. Trauma deaths in a mature urban vs. rural trauma system: a comparison. Arch Surg. 1997;132:376-381.
- 55. Svenson JE, Spurlock C, Nypaver M. Pediatric firearm-related fatalities: not just an urban problem. Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med. 1996;150:583-587.
- 56. Rutledge R, Fakhry SM, Baker CC, et al. A population-based study of the association of medical manpower with

- county trauma death rates in the United States. Ann Surg. 1994;219:547-563.
- 57. Rogers F, Osler R, Shackford S, Cohen M, Camp L, Lesage M. Study of the outcome of patients transferred to a level I hospital after stabilization at an outlying hospital in a rural setting. J Trauma. 1999;46:328-333.
- 58. Sharar S, Luna G, Rice C, Valenzuela T, Copass M. Air transport following surgical stabilization; an extension of regionalized trauma care. J Trauma. 1988:28:794-798.
- 59. Rinker C, McMurry F, Groeneweg V, et al. Emergent craniotomy in a rural level III trauma center. J Trauma. 1998; 44:984-990.
- 60. Fallon M, Copass M. Southeast Alaska to Seattle emergency medical air transports: demographics, stabilization, and outcomes. Ann Emerg Med. 1990; 19:914-921.
- 61. Schwab W, Frankel H, Rotondo M, et al. The impact of true partnership between a university level I trauma center and a community level II trauma center on patient transfer practices. J Trauma. 1998:44:815-820.
- 62. Garrison H, Benson N, Whitley T. Helicopter use by rural emergency departments to transfer trauma victims: a study of time-to-request intervals. Am J Emerg Med. 1989;7:384-386.
- 63. Young J, Bassam D, Cephas G, Brady W, Butler K, Pomphrey M. Interhospital versus direct scene transfer of major trauma patients in a rural trauma system. Am Surg. 1998;64:88-92.
- 64. Mann NC, Mullins RJ, Mackenzie EJ, et al. Systematic review of published evidence regarding trauma system effectiveness. J Trauma. 1999;47:S25-S33.
- 65. Nathens A, Jurkovich G, Cummings P, Rivara F, Maier R. The effect of organized systems of trauma care on motor vehicle crash mortality. JAMA. 2000; 283:1990-1994.
- 66. Shackford SR, Mackersie RC, Hoyt DB, et al. Impact of a trauma system on outcome of severely injured patients. Arch Surg. 1987;122:523-527.
- 67. Sampalis J, Denis R, Lavoie A, et al. Trauma care regionalization: a process-outcome evaluation. J Trauma. 1999;46:565-581.
- 68. Demetriades D, Chan L, Cornwell E, et al. Paramedic vs private transportation of trauma patients. Arch Surg. 1996;131:133-138.
- 69. Rogers FB, Shackford SR, Osler TM, Vane DW, Davis JH. Rural trauma: the challenge for the next decade. J Trauma. 2000;48:576-578.
- 70. Mullins RJ. A historical perspective of trauma system development in the

- United States. J Trauma. 1999;47: S9-S14
- 71. Mullins RJ, Veum-Stone J, Hedges JR, et al. Influence of a statewide trauma system on location of hospitalization and outcome of injured patients. I Trauma, 1996:40:536-546.
- 72. Harlos S, Warda L, Buchan N, Klassen TP, Koop VL, Moffatt ME. Urban and rural patterns of bicycle helmet use: factors predicting usage. Inj Prev. 1999;5:183-188.
- 73. Sample PL, Darragh AR. Perceptions of care access: the experience of rural and urban women following brain injury. Brain Inj. 1998;12:855-874.
- 74. Schootman M, Fuortes L. Functional status following traumatic brain injuries: population-based rural-urban differences. Brain Inj. 1999;13: 995 - 1004.